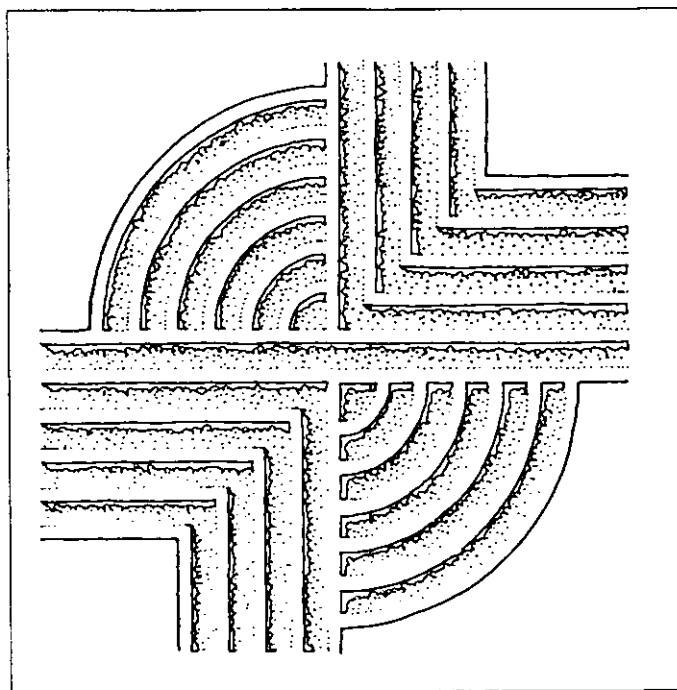


INTENSIVE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF A
PROPOSED WATER TREATMENT PLANT
AND WATER INTAKE LINE,
NEWBERRY COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA



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**INTENSIVE ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF A PROPOSED WATER
TREATMENT PLANT AND WATER INTAKE LINE,
NEWBERRY COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA**

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive archaeological survey of a proposed water treatment plant and raw water intake line in the southeastern corner of Newberry County, bordering Lake Murray. The treatment facility, situated adjacent to S-313, includes about 9 acres of woodlands on a rise and southwest facing slope. The intake line is situated at the edge of the existing S-313 road, running from the facility southward to the lake.

Examination of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology revealed that no archaeological sites were recorded in the project area. An inquiry made to the South Carolina Department of Archives and History for any previous architectural surveys or the presence of any National Register properties, sites, districts, or objects. None were recorded in the project vicinity.

The proposed treatment plant was investigated using shovel tests at both 100 and 200 foot intervals, depending on soil conditions and slope. All shovel tests were screened through ¼-

inch mesh. This area was found to be heavily eroded, with clay subsoil within the upper 0.1 to 0.2 foot of every profile. In addition, many of the tests exhibited large quantities of gravel in the tests, indicative of the extreme erosion. The intake line traverses areas of both developed yards and logged woods. Yard areas were not shovel tested, but areas of open ground were visually examined. Wooded areas along the proposed water line were either visually examined (where logging had exposed soil) or were shovel tested at 200 foot intervals. The proposed raw water intake is situated in an area of extreme erosion, likely caused by fluctuating water levels. Dense gravel was exposed throughout the area and no A horizon soils were present.

The shovel tests failed to identify any archaeological remains and no further management activities are recommended. As always, it is possible that unrecognized archaeological remains may be identified during construction. If so, the contractor should suspend work and notify either Chicora or the State Historic Preservation Office.

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INTRODUCTION

This investigation of the proposed Newberry County water treatment facility and raw water intake line was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Wilber Smith Associates. The project is situated in the southeastern portion of Newberry County, near its boundary with Lexington and Saluda counties (Figure 1). The corridor for the water intake is estimated to be about 25 to 30 feet in width (including construction zone), while the treatment plant itself will be situated on a 9 acre parcel.

The survey corridor begins at the end of S-313 on the shore of Lake Murray west of a boat landing and a burned store. From there it follows the western edge of the pavement northward for about 2,500 feet, terminating at the southern end of the proposed treatment plant. This facility, forming a triangle, is also situated on the west side of the secondary road. It encompasses much of the ridge top, as well as a portion of the southwest

facing slope (Figure 2).

The proposed work on the corridor will likely include some minor clearing and grubbing of the corridor, followed by excavation for the placement of the intake line. In the area of the treatment facility, work will include extensive clearing and grubbing, as well as construction of the treatment plant, access roads, and associated utilities. This work has the potential to damage or even destroy archaeological sites in the immediate vicinity.

We were requested by Wilber Smith Associates to submit a cost proposal for an intensive survey of the project on March 19. This proposal, submitted on that same day, was approved on March 21, 1997. These investigations incorporated a review of the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology by Ms. Rachel Brinson-Marrs on March 28, 1997. No previously recorded sites were recorded in or near the project area. In addition, Dr. Tracy Power at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History was asked on March 25, 1997 to check the master topographic maps at his office to locate any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. In addition, his office was asked about the results of any structures surveys which might have been completed in the study area. On April 4 he reported that there were no National Register properties in the corridor. In addition, there were architectural sites recorded for the project area. Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The survey, which was designed to identify prehistoric or historic resources which may be within the project corridor or on the proposed treatment plant, was conducted April 2 by Dr. Michael Trinkley and Mr. William Barr. A total of 15 person hours were required for the study.

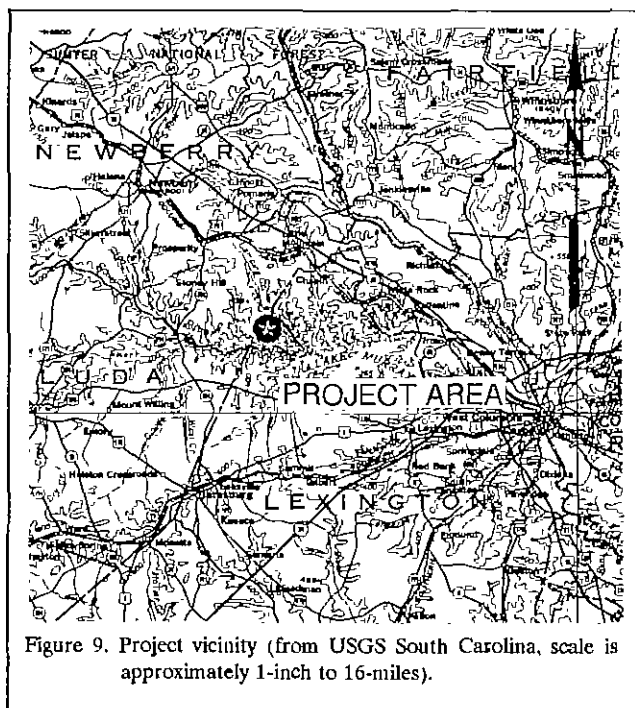


Figure 9. Project vicinity (from USGS South Carolina, scale is approximately 1-inch to 16-miles).



Figure 2. Project boundaries shown on a portion of the Lake Murray West USGS topographic map.

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiographic Province

The project area is situated in the southeastern corner of Newberry County on a substantial ridge top overlooking small, unnamed drainages to the east and west. Today these drainages have been partially flooded by the creation of Lake Murray, which is situated about 0.5 mile to the south of the project area (Figures 1 and 2).

Newberry County is bounded to the north by Union County, to the west by Laurens County, to the south by the Saluda River and Greenwood, Saluda and Lexington counties, and to the east by the Broad River and Richland and Fairfield counties.

Lake Murray, which forms a portion of the county's southern boundary, was created by flooding a portion of the Saluda River. The Lake Murray dam was completed in December 1930 by the Lexington Water Power Company. When originally constructed the dam was the largest high earth dam in the world, and the waters it backed up was the largest power reservoir in the United States (Wallace 1951:689-690). Although South Carolinians often claim a love for their heritage, no archaeological, or historical, research was conducted prior to the construction of this facility. In fact, many of the original family cemeteries still lie unrecorded at the bottom of Lake Murray.

The county is located within the Piedmont region. Physiographically, the county is a thoroughly dissected plain. The relief ranges from nearly level to steep, but it is dominantly gently sloping to moderately steep (Camp 1960:1). In the project area elevations range from about 420 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) to about 320 feet AMSL. In general the elevations drop to the south, toward Lake Murray. A hollow is present on the western side of the proposed treatment plant, while the remainder is fairly level.

The drainages form a dendritic pattern and throughout the Piedmont this terrain has been extensively dissected and degraded. The Broad River drains the northern and eastern portions of the county, and the Saluda River drains the southern and western areas. Numerous smaller streams (such as those which drain southward on either side of the project area) are found throughout the county.

Geology and Soils

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964). In Newberry County the soils are formed in saprolite that weathered from crystalline rocks and "Carolina slates". Soils from the river floodplains formed in sediment that washed from the uplands of the Piedmont province.

The project area is primarily situated on Herndon silt loams, characterized as the gently sloping phase. The intake water corridor and pump station are situated on both these soils and also on Herndon silt loams which are steeply sloping (Camp 1960:Maps 53 and 55).

The 1954 aerial photographs also reveal that most of the proposed treatment facility was in cultivation and the Herndon soils are characterized as having an Ap horizon of about 6 inches, consisting of a strong brown (7.5YR5/6) silt loam overlying a yellowish red (5YR5/8) silty clay loam. Camp notes that while such lands were often cultivated, they were "likely to erode" (Camp 1960:23). In contrast, the steeper phase of this

series includes topography with 15 to 25% slopes — consistent with its high potential for erosion. Camp, in fact, notes that erosion has been a consistent problem for much of Newberry County (Camp 1960:3).

In fact, the 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry found that this portion of Newberry County exhibited severe sheet erosion with occasional gullies (Lowry 1934). This portion of Newberry County has lost up to 0.7 foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum erosion land use with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III — the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

Within recent times this area has been logged, likely increasing soil loss originating during earlier agricultural activities. The United States Forest Service has determined that logging accounts for upwards of 0.36 tons of soil erosion per acre per year in this region, while areas of skid trails have erosion rates of about 9.91 tons per acre per year (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1980:25). This is clearly evidenced in the shovel testing program conducted in the project area (discussed in a following section of this study).

In 1826 Robert Mills remarked that there were four types of soil present in the county, including clays, sands, gravels, and "stony" soil. He noted that:

The lands are too much neglected; no system of manuring them when they begin to fail is pursued. The practice has been to turn them out; the consequence of which is, that they are washed into gullies and destroyed (Mills 1826: 653).

Fairfield planter William Ellison remarked in 1828 that "the successful cotton planter sits down in the choicest of his lands, slaughters the forest, and murders the soil" (quoted in Ford 1988:38). In 1842 agricultural reformer Edmund Ruffin warned

of impending disaster from the reliance on cotton and observed that little effort was being made to protect the land (Ruffin 1843:73).

In spite of these early warnings, the South Carolina Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration, as late as 1907, found no reason to remark on the threat of erosion, noting only that "the second best cotton lands are found in [nearby] Anderson and Laurens Counties" (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:255). Newberry itself boasted of six cotton seed oil mills and ranked eighth in cotton production in 1904, increasing to sixth in 1906 (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:269, 288).

Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina, including the Piedmont. In addition, the more westerly mountains block or moderate many of the cold air masses that flow across the state from west to east. Even the very cold air masses which cross the mountains are warmed somewhat by compression before they descend on the Piedmont.

Consequently, the climate of Newberry County is temperate. The winters are relatively mild and the summers warm and humid. Rainfall in the amount of 44 to 48 inches is adequate, although less than in some neighboring counties. About 24 to 28 inches of rain occur during the growing season, with periods of drought not uncommon during the summer months. As Hilliard illustrates, these droughts tended to be localized and tended to occur several years in a row, increasing the hardship on those attempting to recover from the previous year's crop failure (Hilliard 1984:16). Perhaps the best wide-scale example of this was the drought of 1845, which caused a series of very serious grain and food shortages throughout the state.

The average growing season is about 221 days, although early freezes in the fall and late frosts in the spring can reduce this period by as much as 20 or more days (Camp 1960:2).



Figure 3. Area of the proposed treatment plant which has been logged, leaving only hardwoods.

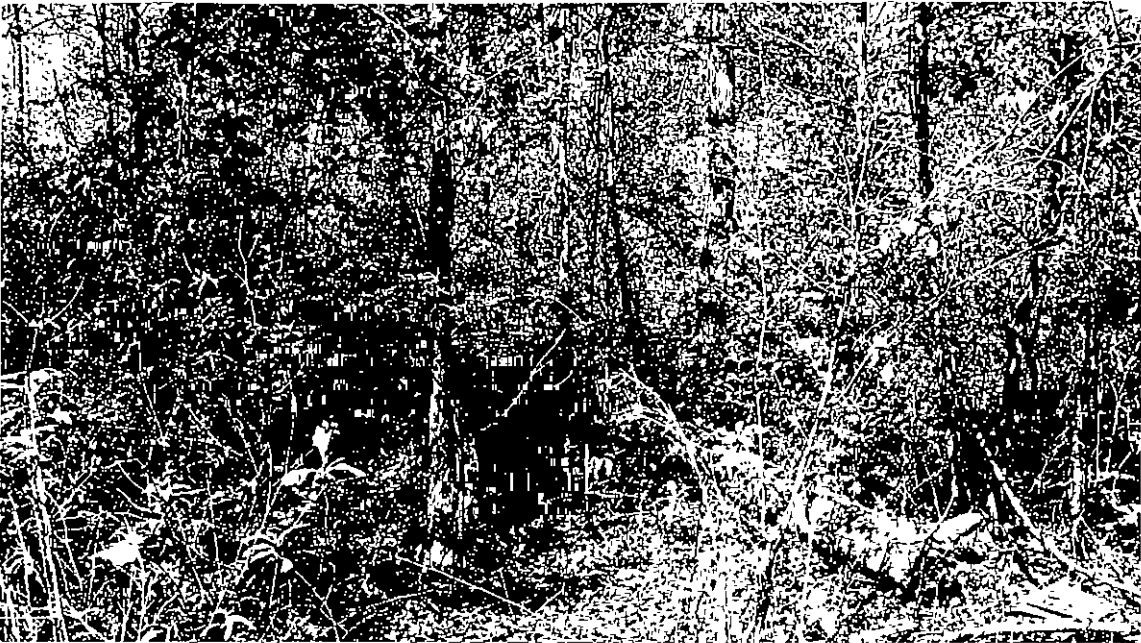


Figure 4. Area of the proposed treatment plant which has been cultivated, but is now in dense second growth.

Consequently, most cotton planting, for example, did not take place until early May, avoiding the possibility that a late frost would damage the young seedlings.

Floristics

Piedmont forests generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). The potential natural vegetation of the area is the Oak-Hickory-Pine forest, composes of medium tall to tall forests of broadleaf deciduous and needleleaf evergreen trees (Küchler 1964). The major components of this ecosystem include hickory, shortleaf pine, loblolly pine, white oak, and post oak. In actuality, the Piedmont is composed of a patchwork of open fields, pine woodlots, hardwood stands, mixed stands, and second growth fields. Shelford (1963) includes the Carolina Piedmont in the Oak-Hickory zone of the Southern Temperate Deciduous Forest Biome.

Today the "patchwork" is more than ever clearly visible. The survey corridor includes grassed yards, barren soil at the lake edge, recently logged stands, logged areas where hardwoods have been left, and logged areas with second growth pine (Figures 3 and 4). There is virtually no vegetation in the project area that is consistent with the native forests of the area.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Previous Research

The Piedmont has been the focus of considerable archaeological research. Derting et al. (1991), for example, cite 93 studies specific to Newberry County. Virtually all of these are compliance related, with 62% being surveys or similar studies produced by the U.S. Forest Service on their Sumter National Forest lands. The next most common studies are those produced by the South Carolina Department of Highways, with their surveys accounting for an additional 26% of the pre-1991 literature for the county.

There is no single synthesis of the area's archaeology. An overview of the Sumter National Forest was prepared by Patricia Logan nearly two decades ago, but has not been published (Logan n.d.). Other researchers, however, have provided considerable information on the region. In particular, the Paleoindian and Early Archaic is carefully explored by a variety of authors in an edited volume by Anderson and Sassaman (1996). These same researchers have also explored the Middle and Late Archaic (Sassaman and Anderson 1994). The Woodland and Mississippian is less well researched for the Piedmont, although Anderson (1994) does provide a generalized overview.

Dr. Tracy Power of the South Carolina Department of Archives and History (personal communication 1997) reports that there are no National Register buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the survey area. In addition, no archaeological sites are recorded at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology for the general area of this study.

Prehistoric Overview

In the Carolina Piedmont, lithic scatters are the most common type of prehistoric site encountered. Goodyear et al. (1979:131-145) found that lithic scatter sites located in the inter-riverine

Piedmont were geographically extensive and exhibited little artifact diversity. These sites have been interpreted as:

limited or specialized activity sites which represent resource exploitation or other distinct functions. Nearly all investigators working in the Piedmont have related these sites to activities involving hunting, nut gathering, and procuring of lithic raw materials (Canouts and Goodyear n.d.:8).

Although the vast majority of these sites are located in eroded areas and exhibit little to no subsurface integrity, Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue that they have analytical value. This value lies in their horizontal rather than vertical dimensions. They argue that:

[f]uture investigators of upland sites must effect broad-scale spatial analyses comparable to the temporal analyses effected through excavation of deeply stratified sites. Both endeavors are necessary, and neither is sufficient for the total understanding of Piedmont prehistory" (Canouts and Goodyear 1985: 193).

One observation that Canouts and Goodyear (1985) made is that lithic raw material ratios change through time. For instance, at the Gregg Shoals site in Elbert County, Georgia, the Early Archaic assemblage reflects greater use of non-local cryptocrystalline materials and the Late Archaic, greater use of non-quartz local material (see Tippitt and Marquardt 1981). Examination of changing use of lithic resources will help archaeologists better understand issues such as the

extent of seasonal rounds, trade networks, and social organization. Clearly, the discussions by Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue strongly for a higher regard for the "lowly" lithic scatter — a very common occurrence in the Piedmont.

Figure 5 provides an overview of the cultural sequence commonly found in the Piedmont of South Carolina.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Points usually associated with this period include the Clovis and several variants, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton (Goodyear et al. 1989:36-38).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Very little work in the state has been able to focus on Paleoindian settlements because of the rarity of the site type. No evidence was found for Paleoindian occupation in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine area, which is not surprising since elsewhere in the state these sites are usually found clustered along major drainages and their tributaries which is interpreted by Michie (1977:124) to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna."

One site identified in the Sumter National Forest (Price 1992), in neighboring Laurens

County, is believed to have a possible Paleoindian component (38LU317). It is situated on a ridge saddle adjacent to a spring which feeds into the Enoree River, located only about 0.3 miles to the north. This fits well with previous arguments that Paleoindian sites will be located adjacent to major drainages.

Anderson (1992:32) suggests that the comparatively low density of Paleoindian diagnostics in South Carolina may be because the state could have been on the edge of the ranges of groups centered in other areas. He suggests that permanent settlements elsewhere probably occurred later in the Paleoindian period, only when population levels had grown appreciably in these centers. This would help to explain the overlap in stylistic traditions (such as the Clovis, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton) observed in South Carolina which perhaps resulted from populations expanding outward from these centers.

Archaic Period

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to as late as 500 B.C. in the Piedmont, does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched, side-notched, and broad stemmed projectile points, are common in the vicinity, although they rarely are found in good, well-preserved contexts (for a thorough discussion of the Early Archaic, see Anderson and Sassaman 1996, while Anderson and Joseph 1988 offer a review of prehistoric archaeology along the upper Savannah River).

Prehistoric sites in the Piedmont inter-riverine zones are for the most part characterized as "upland lithic scatters" (House and Wogaman 1978:xii). These sites are shallow deposits without stratigraphic definition, contain a diversity of artifacts, and are commonly disturbed by plowing and/or erosion (Canouts and Goodyear 1985; Trinkley and Caballero 1983:27).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

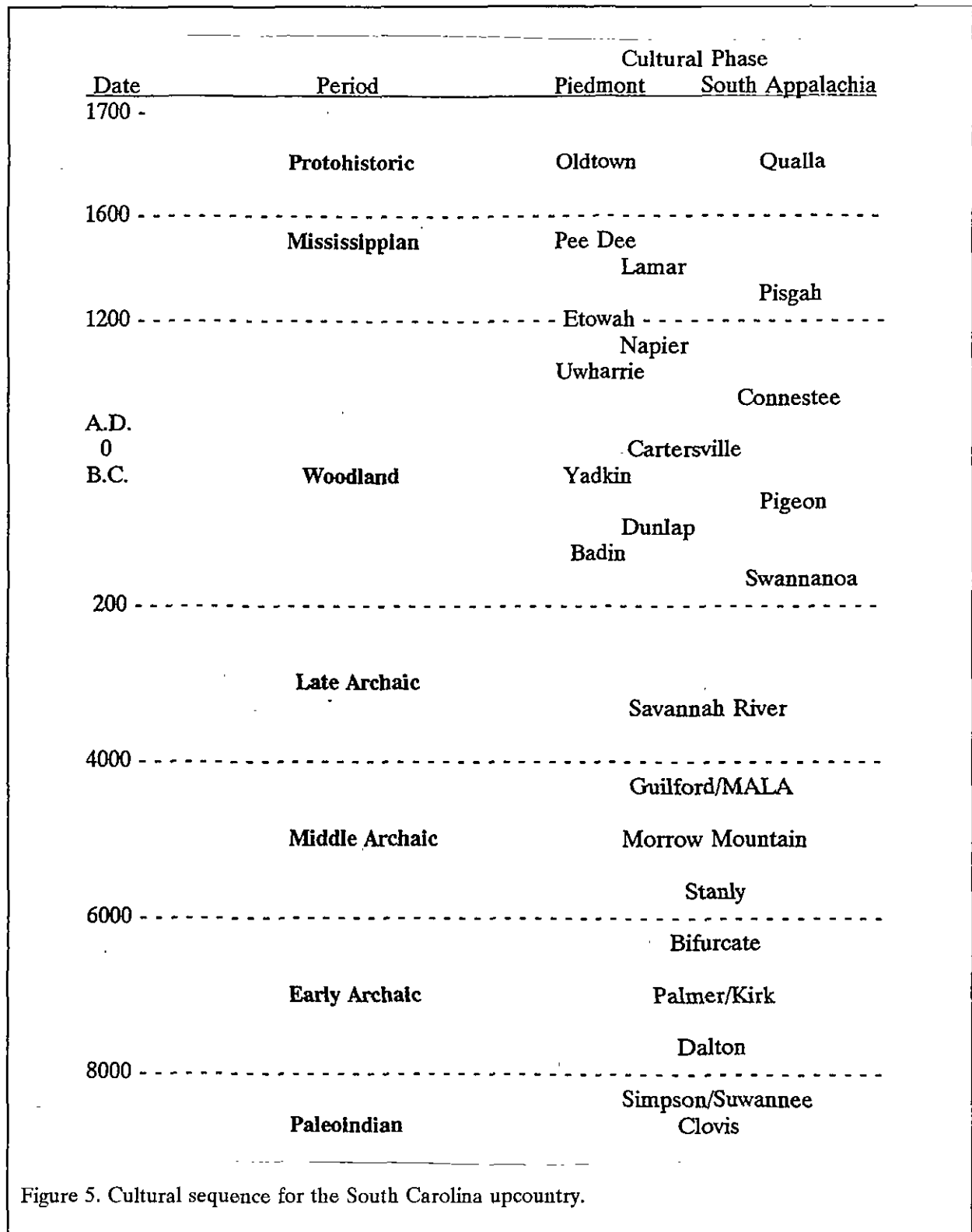


Figure 5. Cultural sequence for the South Carolina upcountry.

Early Archaic

During the Laurens-Anderson study (Goodyear et al. 1979), four sites with Early Archaic components were identified. Each of these sites contained a single example of Dalton¹ points or probable Dalton preforms made of indigenous Piedmont quartz. The following Palmer phase was found to be very common in the area and was represented by 28 sites. While most of the specimens were manufactured from the local quartz, some were manufactured from Coastal Plain chert from the Flint River formation located in the lower coastal plain of South Carolina and Georgia. There were also examples of metavolcanic rhyolite from the Carolina Slate Belt and what may be "Ridge and Valley chert" from eastern Tennessee.

At these sites a wide range of tool types were identified including a large number of unifacial and flake tools believed to be associated with the Early Archaic occupation. Goodyear et al. (1979:197) found that while Early Archaic sites with unifaces were found throughout the corridor, sites on ridgetops which were large watershed divides produced higher counts. They believe that the large number of sites producing Palmer points is related to environmental changes at that time. The large diversity in lithic raw material provided information regarding their "mobility patterns and regions of interactions" (Goodyear et al. 1979:198).

Anderson and Hanson's (1988) band/macrobands model of Early Archaic settlement was formulated primarily to evaluate data from the Savannah River basin. In the Savannah River Valley, settlement organization of the Early Archaic people was "characterized by the use of a logistically provisioned seasonal base camp or camps during the winter, and a series of short-term foraging camps throughout the remainder of the year" (Anderson 1992:36). During the early spring, the groups are believed to have moved toward the coast, then back into the upper coastal

plain and piedmont during the later spring, summer, and early fall. During the winter they returned to their base camp incorporating some side trips to other drainages for aggregation events by groups from two or more different drainages. These aggregation sites are believed to have been located on Fall Line river terraces (Anderson 1989a:36). One example of a postulated base camp is the G.S. Lewis site at the Savannah River Site. This site is located on a ridge adjacent to the confluence of Upper Three Runs Creek and the Savannah River. Given this scenario for the Savannah River basin (which likely applies to other river basins), Early Archaic sites in the Piedmont were likely occupied from summer until fall and don't include aggregation sites. Anderson and Hanson (1988) place the Upper Piedmont in the Saluda/Broad macroband settlement system. At the band level, they proposed "co-residential population aggregates" consisting of 50 to 150 people which occupied and moved primarily within one drainage basin. They projected that individual macroband population was between 500 and 1500 people. They also formulated a spatial model for the distribution of individual bands over the South Atlantic Slope.

Anderson (1989b) notes that data from the Savannah River Site and the Richard B. Russell Reservoir "suggest that a decline in utilization of the Coastal Plain may have occurred at the same time as an increase in utilization of the Piedmont [and] may be a part of a trend noted in the terminal Early Archaic in the general region. Settlement patterning in any given area was thus likely shaped by a range of variables, such as local resource structure, as well as by more regional trends in climate, population density, and these patterns apparently changed appreciably over time" (Anderson 1992:39). Data from the Laurens-Anderson study and the Savannah River project suggests that inter-riverine sites will be found on hills between watershed divides and riverine sites will be located on knolls adjacent to a major confluence.

Middle Archaic

Morrow Mountain and Guilford points constituted the primary evidence for Middle

¹Some researchers (see, for instance, Anderson 1992) classify Dalton as Paleoindian while others (Goodyear et al. 1989) classify it as Archaic.

Archaic (5000 to 3000 B.C.) occupation in the Laurens-Anderson corridor (Goodyear et al. 1979). Morrow Mountain constituted the vast bulk of these projectile points and were present in both the I and II varieties.² Over 95% of the 145 points were manufactured from the local quartz, which parallels other findings in Piedmont South Carolina. Guilford was not nearly as prominent and consisted of 35 finished specimens or preforms, all of which were manufactured from quartz.³

The Middle Archaic period was found to consist of the largest number of sites. In terms of geographic distribution, Goodyear et al. (1979) found that the Morrow Mountain phase was much like the Palmer phase, with sites occurring on ridges between watersheds. However, the almost complete reliance on local quartz separates the Morrow Mountain and Guilford phase sharply from the earlier Palmer phase. They suggest that "[t]he large number of Middle Archaic sites well dispersed through the inter-riverine areas and the abundant nature of chipped quartz remains on these sites suggest frequent movement and activity throughout the Piedmont of South Carolina" (Goodyear et al. 1979:207). Data from early reservoir projects (see, for example, Wauchope 1966) as well as inter-riverine observations by Caldwell (1954; 1958) and Coe (1952) made it clear that there were sharp contrasts between riverine and inter-riverine sites in terms of artifact

diversity and density, and in the use of shellfish (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:134). With the advent of cultural resource management in the 1970s, additional data was available and further emphasized these differences. All of this data indicated that the largest and densest sites were located along large rivers, and that small, sparse sites were found throughout the uplands. While these differences were clear, what remained unclear was the relationship between riverine and inter-riverine sites in a settlement-subsistence system, and how, if at all, this system changed over time (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:135).

House and Ballenger studied this issue during their survey work on the proposed Interstate 77 project in 1976. They classified riverine zones of containing only the largest rivers while inter-riverine zones consisted of smaller rivers and streams. House and Ballenger (1976) argued that streams with a ranking of 3 or higher⁴ contained resources that were not abundant in the uplands (fish, turtle, raccoon, etc.), whereas smaller streams had a higher density of deer and nut masts. The resulting archaeological assemblages from these distinct areas should, themselves, be distinct (House and Ballenger 1976; Sassaman and Anderson 1994). They divided their sites into habitation and extraction sites⁵ using a lithic tool classification scheme that would allow functional sorting of the two site types. From the information gathered using this analysis, coupled with data on

² Coe (1964) describes Morrow Mountain I as a small triangular blade with a short pointed stem, while the Morrow Mountain II is described as a long narrow blade with a long tapered stem. While he describes them as different types, he notes that many people have chosen not distinguish between the two.

³ Preforms represent an intermediate stage between flakes from secondary cores and quarry blades. Some are worked bifacially, although most are unifacial and still retain the platform and bulb of percussion. Quarry blades are usually bifacially worked and are made to allow easy transportation of lithic materials until the time it is needed to be made into a projectile point. Some researchers have used the terms preform and quarry blade interchangeably, meaning the bifacially worked ovate blade.

⁴ According to the system, based on Strahler (1957) 1st order streams are the fingertip tributaries at the head of a stream and may either be year-round or seasonally flowing streams. A 2nd order stream is formed by the confluence of two 1st order streams. A 3rd order stream is formed by the confluence of two 2nd order streams, etc. This system requires that at least two streams of a given order be joined to form a stream of the next highest order. The main stem of a river will always have the highest order.

⁵ An extraction site is an area where resources (such as fish, lithic raw material, etc.) were obtained and is often represented by lithic debitage and perhaps small camp sites. A habitation site is a seasonal or temporary camp where these resources were usually consumed, used, or worked.

the seasonal availability of resources, they created a Middle and Late Archaic settlement model:

involving spring and summer residence along major rivers; a move to seasonal base camps in upland creek valleys in September to take advantage of deer concentration in upland hardwood zones, with some exploitation of other resources as well; and then a return to riverine-located winter quarters with permanent houses in about December when the coldest months arrived, the deer rutting season came to an end, and the acorn mast in the hardwood forests began to be exhausted (House and Ballenger 1976:117).

The Windy Ridge site (House and Wogaman 1978), while fitting the expected upland site profile as proposed by House and Ballenger (1976), may have been used as a habitation site during the Middle Archaic. Other projects also complicated the model. Work in the Richard B. Russell Reservoir (Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985; Tippet and Marquardt 1981) examined a number of sites with Morrow Mountain components. Interestingly, none of these riverine sites produced denser or more diverse remains than did inter-riverine sites. This suggested that Middle Archaic people were not using the riverine and inter-riverine areas much differently in this part of the state (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:137).

Sassaman (1983) attempted to more closely examine Middle and Late Archaic settlement patterns by examining sites from a number of piedmont studies. He found that Middle Archaic settlement in the South Carolina Piedmont did not fit the riverine-inter-riverine model. This suggested that Middle Archaic people were much more mobile, perhaps moving residences every few weeks which fit Binford's (1980) definition of a foraging society. Binford (1980) proposed that foragers had high levels of residential mobility, moving camps often to take advantage of

dispersed, but similar resource patches. Collectors stayed in one location longer, by sending out specialized work parties to exploit resources in widely dispersed and distinct resource patches. He believed that differences in environmental structure could be traced to large scale climatic factors. He further noted that a collector system could arise under any conditions that limited the ability of hunter-gatherers to relocate residences. During his work in the Haw River area of North Carolina, Cable (1982) argued that postglacial warming at the end of the Pleistocene led to increased vegetational homogeneity which encouraged foraging.⁶

Sassaman (1983) suggests that this indicates a large degree of homogeneity of the piedmont environments. They also had a high degree of social flexibility, allowing them to pick up and move when needed. This high level of mobility did not allow them to transport much material, which in turn, alleviated the need for elaborate or specialized tools to procure and process resources at locations distant from camp. Since quartz is practically everywhere in the piedmont, tools could be easily replaced and were expedient. The high mobility and the expediency of tools helps to explain the abundance of Middle Archaic sites in the piedmont without having to imply a population explosion. Sassaman called this model the "Adaptive Flexibility" model (Sassaman 1983; Sassaman and Anderson 1994).

Late Archaic

Savannah River Stemmed and Otter⁷ stemmed points are the primary indicators of Late Archaic settlement in the Laurens-Anderson study area. Ten Savannah River phase sites and seven

⁶ Since the vegetation was homogeneous and there were no concentrations of resources people moved from place to place foraging rather than settling near or in these resource concentrations.

⁷ According to Oliver (1981) the Otter type is contemporaneous with the Savannah River stemmed type and fall within the category of "Small Savannah River Stemmed".

Otarre phase sites were identified. Quartz tools, which were found in overwhelming abundance at earlier sites, consisted only of about 57% of the Savannah River assemblage. Other materials included "silicates, volcanic slate/argillite, and unknown igneous/metamorphic" (Goodyear et al. 1979:207). The Otarre assemblage reflected a trend away from igneous/metamorphic rock, with a concentration of quartz and siliceous materials. The incorporation of more types of lithic raw material as well as the fact that Late Archaic diagnostics are much fewer than Middle Archaic diagnostic artifacts indicates a sharp decrease in residential mobility.

Many of these Late Archaic sites produced fire cracked rock which was found on major ridges between watersheds. Goodyear et al. (1979:209-210) found that the inter-riverine picture of the Late Archaic contrasted quite sharply with river sites. Artifacts at riverine sites were diverse and included steatite vessels and netsinkers⁸, ground stone axes, rock mortars and handstones, atlatl weights, and chipped stone drills. In the upland sites, the assemblage consists almost entirely of chipped stone bifaces and debitage. Purrington (1983) also noted this trend for the mountain region of North Carolina. At the Savannah River Plant, both riverine and upland sites contained a full range of tools, but no architectural features have been located.

Soapstone became an important lithic resource in the Late Archaic period for manufacturing of cooking vessels, and a number of soapstone quarries have been identified in Spartanburg and Cherokee counties (Ferguson 1976). Unfortunately, little is known about patterns in local soapstone use, although Elliott (1981) argues that soapstone exchange in the upcountry was facilitated by local reciprocal relationships. Soapstone was also probably used as a mechanism

to maintain long distance relationships through long distance trade. Sassaman et al. state that:

[c]ompared to sites in the upper and lower reaches of the Coastal Plain, a higher proportion of sites in the middle portion of the plain contain soapstone artifacts. This may indicate that soapstone distributions were not merely the result of distance-decay from sources, but were much more dependent on the social composition of exchange alliances (Sassaman et al. 1988:90).

For the Late Archaic, John White (1982) also applied a riverine/inter-riverine dichotomy. He demonstrated that riverine sites were much more dense and diverse than inter-riverine sites, but also identified the existence of diverse and sometimes dense assemblages at upland sites. He argued that they were habitation camps during periods of seasonal dispersal from riverine aggregation bases.

Although Steven Savage (1989) has proposed a "Late Archaic Landscape" model, a number of researchers (i.e. Anderson 1989a; Cable 1994; and Rafferty 1992) have noted that his study was seriously flawed by the "misappropriation of data from the Richard B. Russell survey" (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:142). The purpose of the work was to attempt to apply the locational methods of GIS to the analysis of Late Archaic social systems in the Upper Savannah River Valley. However, he only chose to use early intensive survey data and ignored subsequent data from testing and excavation. In addition, he chose to ignore problems such as multicomponentcy and representativeness (Cable 1994). Although it was considered a noteworthy study since it was the first to use Geographic Information Systems (GIS) for the analysis of settlement distribution, "the errors detract from the potential value of Savage's approach" (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:142).

Woodland Period

The Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay

⁸ Sassaman (1991:87-88) states that "perforated and grooved objects are common items in Late Archaic assemblages of the Savannah River Valley. Both the grooved and perforated varieties have been referred to as "netsinkers", but the more common perforated slave was apparently used as a cooking stone."

pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast and much later in the Carolina Piedmont, about 500 B.C. Regardless, the period from 2000 to 500 B.C. was a period of tremendous change.

The subsistence economy during this period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from some coastal sites indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable. Further inland it seems likely that many Native American groups continued the previous established patterns of band mobility. These frequent moves would allow the groups to take advantage of various seasonal resources, such as shad and sturgeon in the spring, nut masts in the fall, and turkeys during the winter.

Early Woodland

Brooks and Hanson (1987) noted significant changes in the density and distribution of upland tributary sites during the Woodland period in the Steel Creek area of the Savannah River Plant. Brooks proposed that as tributary associated habitats became more productive with floodplain maturation that upland tributary terraces became areas of more permanent occupation. For the Savannah River area, the data suggested to Brooks that annual settlement ranges in the Early Woodland period were restricted to tributary watersheds (Sassaman et al. 1990:315).

Artifacts typical of the Early Woodland in the Upper Piedmont consist of Dunlap and Swannanoa ceramics (similar to the Kellog focus of Northern Georgia). The Dunlap series is characterized by a medium to coarse sand paste, fabric impressions, and vessels with a simple jar or cup form. The Swannanoa ceramics, with heavy crushed quartz temper, are cord marked or fabric impressed conoidal jars and simple bowls. Other surface treatments consist of simple stamping, check stamping, and smoothed plain (Keel 1976:230). Early Woodland projectile point types consist of Savannah River Stemmed (and its variants) and Swannanoa Stemmed.

Land use during the Early Woodland period in some areas of the Piedmont suggests extensive use of the inter-riverine zone. Two sites (one in Greenville County and one in Laurens County) contained dense remains and were located on the south face of a slope adjacent to springs. Goodyear et al. (1979:230) suggest that these sites "reflect a fall-winter occupation period with subsistence activities primarily related to nut gathering and deer hunting. If these two sites in fact represent fall-winter base camps it would represent a strong break with previous Archaic systems and their settlement strategies for exploiting inter-riverine biotic resources". Based on these previous studies, Early Woodland sites are most likely to be found adjacent to springs or the upland terraces of tributaries.

Middle Woodland

The Middle Woodland period is found "virtually lacking" in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine zone. One densely occupied site in adjacent Laurens County was found in an unusually large floodplain of a rank 2 stream. Goodyear et al. state that:

[g]iven the habitation like character of this site, plus the large number of simple stamped bearing floodplain sites along larger streams such as the Reedy River, it is tempting to see agriculture playing a role in the apparent re-orientation to floodplain environments during the middle Woodland period in the Piedmont environment. In this regard, the middle Woodland period sites and their locations would seem to presage the late prehistoric Mississippian period pattern during the latter, where large agriculturally related villages were constructed along fertile stretches of floodplain (Goodyear et al. 1979:230-231).

This new pattern is also reflected in the Savannah River Valley where Savannah terrace

sites at the mouth of Upper Three Runs Creek were being occupied again for intensive settlement. Midden accumulations at several sites indicate long term occupation or repeated occupations of these sites by relatively large groups (Sassaman et al. 1990:315).

Pottery typical of the Middle Woodland in the Upper Piedmont consists of the Pigeon and Cartersville series. Pigeon is quartz tempered with surface treatments of check stamping, simple stamping, and brushing. The Cartersville type is characterized by sand or grit paste with the primary surface treatment being cordmarking, although there are also check stamped and simple stamped varieties. The Cartersville series is thought to be closely related to the Deptford series on the Coast. Anderson and Schuldenrein (1985:720) suggest that Cartersville continues well into the Late Woodland period. Projectile points typically found in association with these pottery are the Pigeon Side Notched and Corner Notched types.

Testing at 38LU107 (Wood and Gresham 1981) demonstrated that one of the most intensive occupations of this multicomponent site was during the Middle Woodland period. This site is located on a knoll adjacent to South Rabon Creek, near its confluence with North Rabon Creek. A number of features were encountered including a large, deep pit, post holes, and a stone hearth. This indicated that even sites on plowed knolls can and do produce subsurface features.

Since the Middle Woodland period reflects a new pattern of settlement, questions regarding how quickly this change occurred and how the transition to horticulture affected their material culture should be examined. Clearly, this change did not occur over night and perhaps examination of radiocarbon dates from upland and riverine sites during this transition period will begin to clarify questions regarding change in lifeways.

Late Woodland

Small triangular points which are generally believed to be diagnostic of the Late Woodland and Mississippian periods consisted of 12 examples in the Laurens-Anderson study. Ten of these were

manufactured from quartz while the other two were manufactured from either rhyolite or a Piedmont silicate. These projectile points were typed as "Mississippian triangulars" and included what they believed were Uwharrie or Pee Dee Triangular types and the Hamilton Incurvate Triangular type. Napier and Connestee Series pottery are typical Late Woodland types for the Upper Piedmont region. The Napier series is a fine sand tempered ware with fine complicated stamped designs. The Connestee series is a thin walled sand tempered ware with brushed or simple stamped surface decorations. There are also cordmarked, check stamped, fabric impressed, and plain varieties (Trinkley 1990).

According to Sassaman et al. (1990:317) Late Woodland occupations in the Savannah River Valley consisted of small habitation sites along all available terrace locations of both tributaries and the Savannah River. This increasing use of low-lying terraces suggests the increased exploitation of floodplain habitats, perhaps including maize agriculture, although no direct evidence has yet been found at the Savannah River Site.

Keel (1976) reported on the Garden Creek Mound No. 3 which contained a dominant Connestee component based on George Heye's 1915 examination of the mound. Later work at Garden Creek Mound No. 2 examined a portion of a village with a large quantity of Connestee remains. A number of post holes were exposed revealing one discernable square house with rounded corners measuring about 19 by 19 feet in outline. In addition, there were a number refuse pits and hearths. The hearths included both rock filled and surface hearths. There were also a number of burial pits (see Keel 1976:99). It is likely that Connestee sites in the Upper Piedmont will contain similar features.

Mississippian Period

The South Appalachian Mississippian period, from about A.D. 1100 to A.D. 1640 is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European

disease.⁹ The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers.

In the Upper Piedmont, Mississippian pottery includes the Pisgah and Qualla series. Pisgah ceramics are tempered with unmodified river sand, although some earlier examples contain both river sand and crushed quartz. It is decorated with complicated stamping, check stamping and ladder-like rectilinear patterns (Dickens 1970; Holden 1966). It should be noted that the Qualla series extends well into the historic period (ca.1500-1908) and is characterized by complicated stamping and bold incising. Other types described by Egloff (1967) include burnished, plain, check stamped, cord marked, and corncob impressed. At Tuckasegee brushed examples were also identified (Keel 1976). Other artifacts associated with the Mississippian period include triangular projectile points, flake scrapers, microtools, gravers, perforators, drill, ground stone objects (celts, pipes, and discoids), and worked shell and mica (Keel 1976).

Very little evidence of Mississippian period occupation was found in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine survey area which is not surprising given the focus on riverine resources during this time period. Very little evidence of Mississippian occupation has been documented at the Savannah River Plant and no formal settlement-subsistence model has been created for this area (Sassaman et al. 1990:317). However, Anderson (1994) has provided a detailed examination of evidence for political change at Mississippian sites in the Savannah River Valley and should be consulted for more information.

Excavations at large Mississippian sites in the Upper Piedmont include work at the I.C. Few site which was examined as a part of the Keowee-

Toxaway Reservoir project sponsored by Duke Power Company (Grange 1972). Simpson's Field (38AN8) on the Savannah River was also investigated during the Richard B. Russell Reservoir studies (Wood et al. 1986). Work at the Chauga site (38OC47) in nearby Oconee County evidenced occupation in the Early and Late Mississippian period. Ten stages of mound building were found at the site along with burials and palisades. There is evidence for increasing impoverishment of the residents through time, since burials associated with the latest phases of mound building contained fewer grave goods than earlier phases in both the occupation during the Early Mississippian and the Late Mississippian (Anderson 1994:303-305). Homes Hogue Wilson (1986) examined burials from the Warren Wilson site in western North Carolina and provided some preliminary conclusions regarding social structure based on location of burials according to age and sex. For instance, she found more males than females were buried under structure floors. These males included primarily those under 25 or over 35 years old. She also found that individuals buried inside of structures were more likely to have burial goods than those buried in public areas. Burial feature types included pit burials, side-chambered burials, and central-chambered burials. Studies such as this can give great insight into the social organization of prehistoric societies.

The largest amount of regional work has taken place in the North Carolina mountains at sites such as Tuckasegee, Garden Creek, and Warren Wilson. At Tuckasegee a possible town house was uncovered measuring about 23 feet in diameter with a central hearth (Keel 1976). At Warren Wilson several roughly square structures were uncovered and they all measured on the average about 21 feet square. Burials were common inside of these houses and pit features were abundant. Artifacts at the Warren Wilson site included ceramics from the Swannanoa series up through the Pisgah series. (Dickens 1970).

Historic Overview

General accounts of Newberry County history are presented in Pope (1973) and Central Midlands Regional Planning Council (1974). Mills'

⁹ Small pox was a major cause of death to a large number of Native Americans during the historic period. The smallpox epidemics of 1734 and 1783 reportedly killed half of the Cherokee population (Hatley 1993).

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Atlas also shows the location of prominent settlements and localities in the early nineteenth century and gives a brief physical and economic description of the area in the 1820s (Mills 1826).

Newberry County was settled in the middle of the eighteenth century, primarily by Scotch-Irish, English, and Germans. As part of the Old Ninety Six Judicial District established in 1769, this area retained its frontier characteristics until after the Cherokee War. Newberry County was formed in 1785 when Ninety Six District was divided into six counties (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:138).

The Ninety Six District was crippled by effects of the Cherokee War and the area soon after fell prey to a wave of lawlessness until the 1760s when the Regulators were organized by back country citizens. The Regulator movement died out in 1769 when long overdue attention to the governmental needs of the back country was given by the Charleston authorities.

Newberry's involvement in the early stages of the American Revolution was largely irrelevant as most settlers in this area had no quarrel with the English King and little identity with coastal society's politics which urged separation from Britain. Local citizens became outraged by actions of Tory leader Robert Cunningham and the infamous Redcoat officer Banastre Tarleton which converted the citizens into ardent partisans. Guerilla warfare ensued between 1779 and 1781, laying waste to the area. Three Revolutionary encounters took place in the county: Williams Plantation, 1780; Mudlick Creek and Bush River in 1781 (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:138).

With the introduction of the cotton gin in the late eighteenth century, the area experienced radical changes in its society and economy. Initially an area of small, independent and diversified farmers, it became characterized by large cotton plantations, a reliance on slavery, and a one crop system ruinous to the soil. By 1800 the white population had decreased from 11,000 to 7,000 while the black population increased from 2,000 to almost 14,000 by 1860.

Westward emigration of people lured by the expanding cotton kingdom and increasing political polarization defending slavery grew in the first half of the nineteenth century, leading to almost unanimous citizen support in the area for nullification and secession. Although seriously stricken by the Civil War, the county was spared from the devastation experience by other South Carolina counties (Central Midlands Regional Planning Council 1974:139).

SURVEY METHODS AND FINDINGS

Methodology

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100 to 200 foot intervals, dependent on topography and soil conditions, within the proposed treatment facility. The interval would depend on the field assessment — if the topography was gentle and there was relatively little indication of erosion, tests would be conducted at 100-foot intervals. If, on the other hand, areas of steep slopes were encountered, or if the shovel testing revealed eroded soils, then the test interval would be increased to 200 feet.

Testing of the water intake line, on the other hand, would also depend on its location. We would not test in landscaped yards, but would conduct a pedestrian survey. Otherwise shovel tests would be excavated at 100 or 200-foot intervals.

All fill being screened through 1/4 inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1 foot. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (identified as three or more artifacts within a 25 foot diameter) be identified by shovel testing, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigator.

The actual field methods did not deviate from those initially proposed. The intake facility is planned for an area on the lake edge which

exhibits severe erosion. In this area surface visibility is 100%, with a large amount of subsoil gravel exposed. This area was visually inspected, but no shovel tests were excavated.

The southern half of the intake corridor consists of yard areas and was not shovel tested (Figure 6). Nevertheless, this area exhibits a high degree of disturbance from modern activities, including utility lines, road construction, and development. A pedestrian survey in this area failed to reveal any evidence of prehistoric or historic sites.

The northern half of the intake corridor is characterized by areas of logging (Figure 7). This has resulted in fair to good ground visibility and in most areas a pedestrian survey was conducted. A few areas were judgmentally shovel tested, all revealing, at most, 0.2 foot of A horizon soil over a firm red clay subsoil, frequently containing large quantities of quartz gravel.

The proposed treatment facility included areas which were recently logged (see Figure 3), as well as areas which exhibited a rather thick second growth forest (see Figure 4). Initially transects were run at 100 foot intervals west from the road (see Figure 2). Four such transects were run, with the excavation of 16 shovel tests. Of these, only two, at the southern margin of the tract, revealed intact Ap soils. The remaining shovel tests indicated that extensive sheet erosion had occurred on the site. A horizon soil in most tests ranged from a maximum of 0.1 foot to entirely absent. In many areas the surface soil was primarily gravel and it was very difficult to even excavate deeper than 0.2 foot.

As a result of these findings, shovel test transects were spaced 200-feet apart, with tests at 200-foot intervals. Three additional transects were run west off the road, with the excavation of an additional seven shovel tests.



Figure 6. Portion of the intake corridor running along developed roadside.



Figure 7. Portion of the intake corridor running through eroded and logged woods.

SURVEY METHODS AND FINDINGS

As a result, the nine acre tract was investigated through the excavation of 23 shovel tests, for an average of 2.6 shovel tests per acre.

Findings

These investigations failed to identify any prehistoric remains. The only historic remains identified were a series of trash piles. Two were encountered in intake corridor, consisting of rusted tin cans and glass bottles. Much of the trash was also modern, suggesting a use period within the last 50 years. These trash piles were not assigned archaeological site numbers.

In addition, two piles were found on the south edge of the proposed treatment facility. Both included large quantities of metal cans, probably dating from the 1950s, as well as fairly recent soda bottles. These trash piles are not associated with any structure and were likely dumped on-site, perhaps one of those associated with the landing at the end of S-313 or the nearby residential area. Again, because of the fairly recent age, these piles were not assigned an archaeological site number.

No other historic remains were encountered in the investigations.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The background research for this project failed to identify any known or suspected archaeological sites, although the piedmont topography is certainly appropriate for the recovery of Archaic Period prehistoric archaeological sites. Tempering this assessment, however, is the documented extent of erosion in Newberry County, especially associated with the steep soils and cultivated ridgetops associated with the area.

The archaeological survey combined pedestrian survey with shovel testing. Initially the treatment facility was tested using shovel tests spaced at 100 feet on transects every 100 feet. The tests revealed that our concerns regarding erosion were well founded. The vast majority of the tests revealed a very thin A horizon or an absence of A horizon soils. In addition, much of the tract had been logged, which probably exacerbated the natural erosion tendencies. As a result, the remainder of the tract was explored using shovel tests at 200 foot intervals on transects spaced 200

feet apart.

Although several areas of modern rubbish or trash were found, no archaeological or historical sites were identified. Consequently, it is our recommendation that no additional management activities are necessary for this tract once our study is reviewed by the S.C. State Historic Preservation Office.

There remains, of course, the possibility that unrecorded archaeological sites may be identified during the construction of the project. While unlikely, sites might be identified by concentrations of bricks, bottles, pottery, ceramics, arrowheads or other stone tools, flakes, or even bones. Should such remains be found, it is our recommendation that construction be halted and that either Chicora or the State Historic Preservation Office be notified of the finds. This will allow a more complete evaluation.

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